DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 311 415 CS 009 807

AUTHOR Pace, Gwyn L.
TITLE Rationale and Guidelines for a Literature-Enriched Reading Program in 6th Grade.
PUB DATE Aug 89
NOTE 40p.; Paper presented at the Issues in Education Research Colloquia (Murray, KY, August 1989).
PUB TYPE Information Analyses (070) -- Speeches/Conference Papers (150) -- Guides - Non-Classroom Use (055)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC02 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS *Childrens Literature; *Grade 6; *Instructional Effectiveness; *Instructional Improvement; Intermediate Grades; Middle Schools; *Reading Instruction; *Reading Materials; Reading Material Selection; Reading Processes; Reading Research; Reading Skills; Reading Teachers; Sociocultural Patterns
IDENTIFIERS *Literature Enriched Reading Program

ABSTRACT

Based on a review of the research literature, this paper gives a rationale and guidelines for a sixth-grade literature-enriched reading program. The first part looks at social trends and alternative points of view with respect to the problem of those social trends. The second section presents the rationale and the literature review. The third section offers several procedures for, and an analysis of, a literature-based reading program. The paper includes seven behavioral objectives and two surveys to be filled out by the students before and after participation in the program. The paper concludes with a "recipe for reading" with eight elements: sensory, perceptual, sequential, experiential, associational, learning, thinking, and affective. Thirty-nine references are attached. (MG)

****
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
****

ED311415

Rationale and Guidelines for a Literature-Enriched Reading Program in 6th Grade

by
Gwyn L. Pace

Paper Presented at the August 1989
Research Colloquia: Issues in Education
College of Education
Murray State University
Murray, KY 42071

Willis Johnson -- Coordinator

CS009807

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY
Gwyn L. Pace

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

☐ This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.
☐ Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.

• Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official OERI position or policy.

Table of Contents

	Page
Introduction	3
Theory	6
Rationales/Review of Literature	13
Procedures/Analysis	19
Conclusion	26
References	35

Rationale and Guidelines for a Literature-Enriched Reading Program in 6th Grade

Introduction

The middle school student is an "in-betweener." He/she is neither child nor adult. It is sometimes difficult for us as teachers (and parents) to know how to deal with these in-betweeners. They are trying to figure out where they fit, who they are, what they want, and why they want it. It is a time of change, a period of confused physical and emotional feelings. They can be loving, hostile, moody, or ridiculously silly.

The classroom teacher who is truly concerned that students learn to read, write, and speak well will employ the means and materials needed to accomplish this goal, at least to the degree allowed by principal and school board guidelines.

Most middle school students have been taught with basal readers. These readers are a series of books that follow a developmental skill sequence. They normally begin with readiness materials for use in kindergarten/first grade and continue through sixth or eighth grade. They are multi-authored books that become progressively more difficult.

Basals can run the gamut from those that contain good stories and well-organized skill sequences to some

with dreary stories that don't even reinforce the skills the teacher is attemptine to teach.

My problem is a way to give the children a love of reading while maintaining a solid skills background. Readers have a history behind them and have certainly helped produce educated, well-rounded individuals through the decades.

For many teachers, skills reinforcement is the most important benefit of a basal reader. They provide a structure that teaches skills in a logical and organized sequence. With their use, it is also quite easy to evaluate quickly what skills the child knows and what needs to be retaught (Whitehead, 1968). Too, basals usually include stories written by some of the best children's authors. These stories can be used as springboards to a variety of children's books. Moreover, most basal readers encourage teachers to pick and choose from stories and activities. Writing applications and other creative activities are many times standard fare (Sebesta, 1968).

Basal readers have changed greatly through the years. The McGuffey readers of the 1800s are nothing like the Dick and Jane readers of the 1950s, which are distinctly different from today's basals. They have to appeal to a broad audience and cannot espouse one philosophy to the complete exclusion of others (Barr, 1988).

At their best, basals allow for teacher choice while still providing structure. They provide ample activities and materials so that a teacher may use multiple methods to guide instruction. It is generally felt that if they did not now exist, basals in some form would probably be invented.

However, it's not difficult to find many complaints about a basal. For example, many teachers feel the stories are either dull or unchallenging. With a basal text and its accompanying teacher's manual, it is easy to get bogged down with all the required skills and tests, with little or no time left for student-teacher interaction with a story. In other words, the student has little chance to get really involved. Probably the biggest complaint is the basal's emphasis on workbooks and ditto sheets (Turner, 1988). This is what children usually associate with reading. There is such an emphasis on skills, the interest in reading has little time to be nurtured.

The sixth grade pupil reads a minimum of 200 words per minute. He can read orally with intelligence material he has not previously read silently. He reads with expression, making proper allowance for punctuation, conversation and other dramatics. He is learning to judge whether to read carefully or scan for information (Stahl,

1965). It has also been shown in numerous surveys that this so-called average sixth grade reader has read and appreciated literature which educated adults pronounce good and great. They independently select and read such books as Treasure Island, Robinson Crusoe, Black Beauty, Tom Sawyer, Little Women, Robin Hood and Tale of Two Cities (Stahl, 1965).

Creating and/or maintaining a love for reading is a basic part of the educational process. Necessary to the development of that love are good books, a well-defined program, and love-to-read teachers. With these ingredients children can reap the rewards of a literary experience. They can live through the joys and trials of a fine story, appreciate the beauty of language, travel unlimited distances, and maybe deepen their understanding of ideals and values.

Theory

Philosophers have from time to time debated the relative importance of the individual as opposed to society. This debate has taken many forms. Some of the recent findings from anthropology, social psychology, and other studies of man have indicated the importance of culture in the development of each individual human (Pounds and Garretson, 1962).

When we look at the nature of present social change we find that there are several characteristics that distinguish it from that of the past. In earlier times, change was either a slow cultural drift or a "jump" due to catastrophic causes. Today, the social changes are accelerating. Another difference between earlier and modern social change is man's increasing ability to understand and control his environment, thus bringing about deliberate changes. The third way in which modern changes affect people differently than those of the earlier period stems from the complexity of the social and industrial organization and in the speed of communication. Now in the interdependent social structure both within and among the industrialized nations, the interrelationships are such that events in one part affect the other parts in a very sensitive way (Pounds and Bryner, 1967).

American educational goals have their foundation upon American social trends. The following trends have occurred during the past 100 years or so. These are trends which already have come about and/or are apparently still continuing: (Pounds and Bryner)

Trend 1. Increased leisure time made possible by technological efficiency.

Trend 2. Social lag of institutions behind material changes.

Trend 3. Increased necessity for co-operative action.

Trend 4. Increased necessity for long-range planning.

Trend 5. Increased dependence on social control.

Trend 6. Increasing remoteness of social control.

Trend 7. Increased need for specialization.

Trend 8. Increased differentiation in providing for individuals.

Trend 9. Weakening of traditional controls over human conduct.

Trend 10. Increased strains and tensions.

Trend 11. America in position of world leadership.

Trend 12. Atomic energy and automation.

People take very differing positions on what should be the relationship of the school to society, particularly with reference to social change. Following are six points of view with respect to the problem of social change: (Pounds and Garretson)

1. Classicism or neo-humanism. This point of view by and large, holds that social changes occurring in our world do not affect or change basic ideas.

2. Traditionalism or essentialism. Here, the school's basic task is to see to it that the important elements of the past are preserved so that man's onward development can continue.

3. Social realism. This point of view holds that the school's main task is to train the individual for adjustment to current society.

4. Experimentalism or pragmatism. The main emphasis here is upon developing critically-minded individuals; a great emphasis is placed upon giving the student many experiences and on the use of problem-solving techniques.

5. Reconstructionism. Here, teachers work with students in understanding and accepting the nature of the new society, the structure of which is indicated by the developing social sciences. They should then help prepare the students to go out into the culture and bring about this new society.

6. Laissez-faire. It is the task of the school to help each student accomplish that which his own interests, needs, and abilities indicate.

This paper has looked at American social trends and at alternative points of view with respect to the problem of those social trends. Now, there is an examination of the choosing of goals and objectives.

One of the earliest writers who was impressed with the importance of education was Plato (427-347 B.C.). To him, education was the principal means whereby persons could be trained for their place in life. Renaissance writers often formulated ideas about education which were

closely related to the values of the ruling classes of the times. Comenius (1592-1617) emphasized education dealing with the concrete; understanding the world in which we live. Rousseau (1712-1778) was interested in having education based almost entirely on the natural development of the child. Scientific developments, such as those of Newton and Darwin, have also caused people to re-think educational goals and purposes (Pounds and Garretson).

In 1918, the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education made a careful study to work out objectives for secondary education. In their final form, the following are the "Seven Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education:" (United States Bureau of Education, 1918)

1. Health
2. Command of fundamental processes
3. Worthy home membership
4. Vocation
5. Civic education
6. Worthy use of leisure time
7. Ethical character

It is increasingly obvious that there is an inherent conflict between societal and individual needs. The educational system works to reconcile this conflict. Following is a schematic form adapted from Thayer, Zachry, and Kotinsky (1939) which illustrates this conflict.

Two Conflicting "Needs" Concepts

These conflicting views can be reconciled by a

Modern "Needs" Concept

a "Developmental Needs" concept, "From-To"

the child's own inadequate, but emotionally real, appraisal of his own needs	through recurring re-appraisal and his own developing awareness under careful teacher guidance of his own needs	a mature understanding of his needs as related to himself and his role in society

---

The "modern needs" concept avoids the conflict between the two contrasting concepts of needs, is in accord with the best motivational psychology for learning and helps prepare individual to meet his obligations to society.

Start "where the student is".

Lead him into broad experiences closely related to his own concept of needs.

Help him to broaden his concept of his needs.

Work with him to an eventual joint recognition of his actual needs--as related to his own unique self and to the culture in which he finds himself.

At this point, reading (not education overall) becomes the focal point. The facts of child development have guided the structure and content of reading series. The potential contribution of reading to wholesome personality growth has also affected the ways in which basic readers are written. Principles derived from learning theory--readiness, motivation, and interest--are other psychological bases for choosing and organizing reading materials. Psychological validity depends on the degree to which instructional materials help reading development, are suited to varied levels of maturity and interest, and incorporate what is known about learning.

Many authorities in reading believe there is a close relationship between patterns of human development and reading ability. Obviously, the development of language and reading takes place within the pattern of personality development. Each individual follows this pattern and goes through a somewhat similar pattern as he acquires skill in reading. Both patterns are characterized by continuity and both include a number of stages. These stages or levels are not discrete, but gradually merge into one another. Stages or levels for the intermediate and upper grade student can be summarized as follows: (Goodman, Olsen, Colvin, and Vanderlinde, 1966)

Until about eight years of age, boys and girls are interested in reading the same types of stories, but after that, their interests diverge.

After 12 or 13 years, social interests and the demands of homework tend to reduce free reading.

After 12 years, reading interests and activities become much more specialized and individual.

Reading becomes a valuable tool in much of the school work, with a wide variety of materials (newspapers, magazines, reference books) in use.

Reading, speaking, writing, and listening abilities are positively related and contribute to one another.

Reading may contribute to knowledge, increase self-insight, and enhance understanding of others.

Rationales/Review of Literature

A literature program has many benefits. Frequently cited ones are offered by Huck (1976):

> A literature program helps students develop a love of literature, increase reading ability, gain knowledge, develop aesthetic awareness, learn about their cultural heritage, and gain personal insight. However, one of the strongest arguments for a literature program is that it affords the reader/listener the opportunity to live the events of the past, present, and future. (p. 31)

Fredericks (1982) contends that exposing students to reading activities beyond the textbook is crucial in developing positive attitudes towards reading. Lewis and Teale (1980) affirm that students' attitudes play an important role in learning to read. Students need to understand how reading affects every aspect of their lives and how they can participate fully in the reading process.

Manzo and Legenza (cited in Gambrell and Sokolski, 1983) have designed a formula for determining how effectively pictures stimulate oral language in children age five through eight.

For this investigation 20 Caldecott award winners including honor books were selected for analysis. The 20 books included eight folktales, six modern fantasies, three modern realistic fictions, two informational books and one historical fiction.

Three pictures were selected from each book and rated using the Manzo-Legenza's Ten Factor Picture Potency Formula to assess their language stimulation value. The results suggest that Caldecott winners provide an excellent source for stimulating oral language. A striking contrast is that the majority of pictures and illustrations in 1st and 2nd grade basal texts are low in language stimulation.

Hayes and Henk (1986) designed a study to examine the differential use in comprehending and remembering complex information when it is presented in instructional texts which are variously augmented with analogic and pictorial illustrations.

The treatment group size was 102 participants (27 males, 75 females). Students who were below average readers were excluded from the study.

An investigation was conducted in two phases, one which concerned the immediate comprehension of instructions in a task which used sets of instructions. The second phase of the experiment focused on retention of the instructions by asking the students to perform the task from memory. Both phases of the experiment had sets of instructions which took the form of pictures as well as prose directions, both literal and analogic. Two weeks later, students were evaluated on their ability to perform the same task from memory.

The findings indicate that pictures proved helpful for both immediate performance and delayed performance. However, performance by students given instructions without any pictures was not as significant as that turned in by subjects in the pictures-only and the prose-plus-pictures testing situation. Analogies proved helpful for delayed performance and useful in remembering the content.

Fredericks (1986), a reading specialist in Catasauqua, Pennsylvania, asserts that mental imagery activities improve reading comprehension.

Johnston (1985) believes that one strategy to improve reading comprehension is for students to use mental imagery.

Imagery must be learned. A planned sequence of activities is essential in helping youngsters in formulating their own techniques for creating mind pictures. Mundell (cited in Fredericks, 1986) has suggested a four-stage procedure:

Step 1. Give students concrete objects. Students will be able to create images from these objects.

Step 2. Encourage children through mental imagery to recall objects or incidences.

Step 3. Give youngsters the opportunity to listen to imagery stories, i.e. westerns, adventures, mysteries.

Step 4. At this point, pupils should be able to create their own mental images as they listen to or read stories.

McNeil (1984) seems up this way:

> Mental imagery is the creation of pictures in the reader's mind prior to, during, or after reading. Its effective use depends on the purposes of the material, its relationship to the reader's ex-

periences, and the logical relationships among the ideas expressed. (p. 45)

Manna (1984) recommends that play reading stimulates teaching and learning experiences. It is further suggested:

> Script reading and play acting can also make children sensitive to language styles and usage. By focusing on the dialogue and sharing their suggestions on reading the lines, they discover that there are alternate ways of saying the same thing, each dependent on the context as well as the speaker's motivation and intention. (p. 713)

Whisler (1978) offers oral reading activities through the method of pupil partners. Pairs of students work together who are matched for reading ability as well as social compatibility. Pupils A & B take turns reading and then posing questions to each other. If a student is not capable of formulating a question then teacher assistance is necessary. This activity has many merits in that students are able to work on a one to one basis; both students are active participants in which alternating procedures of reading, listening, and posing questions is utilized.

Cairney (1988), in a study of 178 primary children (through 12 years), found the children to have a well-developed knowledge of the purpose of reading materials. Unfortunately, they did not see meaning as important when reading basals, and did not find them interesting. It was found that many children place great emphasis upon decoding, vocabulary, and accuracy. As well, many children seemed to believe that basals are of educational value, but, Cairney found, an end in itself. At best, the findings indicate that the use of basals can be improved. At worst, they suggest that the materials themselves and the related instructional procedures need to be reviewed and either revised or discarded due to "the dysfunctional views of literacy they communicate." (p. 427)

Barr and Sadow (1989) examined how seven middle-school teachers from two Chicago school disticts used their basal reading programs. They examined the basal programs used, observed classes, and conducted interviews with teachers during the course of the school year.

Roger Farr (1988), Director, Center for Reading and Language Studies, Indiana University, while not endorsing abandonment of basals, sees their incompatibility with the new emphasis on the whole language approach. For example, the "separate skills instruction" of basal readers, resulting in workbook pages, ditto masters, and mastery

tests, suggests erroneously that language development can be reduced to learning discrete skills. Another major issue is the lack of freedom of choice that is dictated by the use of basals.

Winograd and Paris (1988) revealed that (a) traditional basal reading lessons included little comprehension instruction, and (b) the teachers' edition seldom included information about the cognitive strategies students were supposed to master. Some researchers argue that basal reading series often involve so much time management and dependence that they "deskill teachers and disallow creative instruction." (p. 31)

Procedures/Analysis

Bartelo and Cornette (1982) have designed a language arts program to meet the needs of highly able and gifted readers. In addition, their study encouraged interest in reading and the development of state reading goals.

Students were grouped by ability for their language arts/reading classes. They were exposed to a variety of reading materials from a variety of publishers, rather than confined to the required basal reading series.

The methods utilized in this program were small group discussions, creative projects, and simulation role playing activities.

In response to an attitude survey to evaluate the program, 88 percent of the students had increased their understanding and appreciation of literature, 75 percent increased in the amount of time spent reading, 56 percent disclosed that they had discussed their stories outside the classroom, and 40 percent reported additional reading of stories by authors that they were presented in the classroom.

Martin and Cramond (1984) stress the need for teaching gifted children to read creatively by organizing and then synthesizing information into meaningful relationships. The authors designed a 20-item checklist to facilitate the process of identifying objectives and activities for increasing creative reading.

Steinberg (1983) discusses the relationship between reading and television viewing based on German findings and finds them to be complementary activities. According to a German polling institute, 37 percent of all reading is simulated. Relatedly, Peters (1980) discusses the televised presentations of the 1980 Winter Olympics which were held in Lake Placid, New York. He stresses that teachers of reading and English may find a variety of assignments which are not only beneficial but interesting.

Barr (1986) designed a program at Martin Luther King Jr. High School in New York City where videotapes of movies were used to motivate remedial students to read and write.

Movies were divided into segments of about 20 minutes. Each segment was preceded by discussion or reading and followed by discussion or reading and writing assignments. Students compared the author's purpose with the movie director's purpose as well as character analysis.

Barr states that since the movie invited closer analysis of the book it was possible to introduce critical reading skills. With each book, lists of vocabulary words were provided for the students. Reading assignments were followed by essay questions.

According to Whitmer (1986) humor is a very important characteristic of most cultures and an extremely useful social tool. He asks the question, "Does humorous literature contain potential teaching value?" He feels that humor requires thinking skills and therefore is an important device for teaching critical reading when integrated into the curriculum.

Whitmer suggests that humorous literature may be an important asset for teaching inferencing skills through play with words as students interpret the author's meaning. He concludes that humor is recommended to increase higher order questioning and other reading skills.

In Springfield, Illinois, teachers, administrators, and researchers have worked together to develop and implement a technique to improve reading comprehension. Called reciprocal teaching, it is an instructional procedure originally designed to teach poor comprehenders how to approach the text the way successful readers do. (Palincsar, Ransom, and Derber, 1989)

In reciprocal teaching, students and teachers talk to one another about the meaning of text, taking turns leading the dialogue. The dialogue is structured to incorporate four strategies: generating questions about the content, summarizing the content, clarifying points, and predicting upcoming content from cues in the text or from prior knowledge of the topic. The four activities represent the kinds of strategic engagements experienced by successful readers.

When asked to evaluate the reciprocal teaching program, one teacher wrote:

> The reciprocal teaching approach has been very effective for actively involving children. . . . The children now stop the lesson and ask for clarification whenever they hear something they don't understand. It is very enlightening to hear all the different points of view. The

> children learn that sometimes there are several different ways of saying the same thing and that there are many right answers to the same questions. (p. 40)

Barbara L. Eddy (1988) and other teachers at Lettie Marshall Dent Elementary School in Mechanicsville, Maryland, have incorporated children's books into the curriculum. Their program is called "Classics Club."

Books are chosen through Scholastic or Weekly Reader, so as to keep costs to a minimum and interest high. Lessons follow a typical basal format, including vocabulary development,predicting, silent reading, follow-up questioning, and special activities. Depending on the length or difficulty of the book, specific pages are assigned instead of full chapters for slow readers. Past, present, and future assignments are placed at learning stations throughout the room. Students keep folders of their work in the order that it is completed.

Ellen Brosnahan (1988), a middle school teacher in Glen Ellyn, Illinois, uses children's literature in addition to her basal series. One novel is assigned each quarter. Less-familiar literary genres are encouraged, usually two works of realistic fiction, one of fantasy, and one of historical fiction. Each book appears on standard lists of recommended titles.

In the program, each child gets a copy of the novel and participates in a variety of reading experiences. Some worksheets are used, but only as tools for further appreciating the story and its characters. Following are some examples:

Trait Selection. Students pick a favorite character and select three of that character's traits. They list the traits, then copy one passage that illustrates each.

Self-comparison. Students compare their own way of life with that of a character, giving similarities and differences.

Letter Writing. Students create correspondence between two characters in a book, or between characters in different books.

Diaries. Students choose a character, then write that character's diary entry for a chapter in the book, or for a week after the story has ended, or even a week five years later.

Vocabulary and other skills are taken from each novel. Teaching literary devices has also become much easier with the use of novels.

The research of Dorothy Cohen (1968) showed the positive effects of reading aloud to some 20 classes of youngsters in New York City. Teachers were asked to

read aloud every day and then have the children respond to the story in some way. At the end of the year the classes which had experienced the daily story time were significantly ahead of the control group in reading vocabulary and comprehension.

Children of all ages need a well-planned time to read. One way to see that all have an opportunity to read is to provide for this during classtime. USSR or SSR, Suspended Silent Reading (MacCracken, 1972), provides for everyone to read a book, including the teacher. Starting with eight to 10 minutes, the time is gradually increased to 15, 20, or 30 minutes each day. Children have the opportunity to see their peers and an adult reading and enjoying books.

If literature is to become the central focus of the reading program, it cannot be relegated to something you do "after all your other work is finished," a phrase frequently issued in the classroom. Teachers who plan to use literature in the reading program will want to provide a variety of ways in which it can be utilized in helping children become fluent readers.

Conclusion

After implementation of a literature-enriched program, I would offer the following behavioral expectations, keeping in mind consideration must be given to the varied abilities and capabilities of each student.

Behavioral objective no. 1. Each student would increase his/her decoding skills as a means of understanding the written material and to be measured by written assignments and group discussions.

Behavioral objective no. 2. Each student would increase his/her ability to think and write creatively as measured by any number of creative actions; for example, mobiles, diaries, plays.

Behavioral objective no. 3. Each student would come to appreciate his/her feelings for, and his classmates' thoughts on, a particular work as measured by informal group discussions.

Behavioral objective no. 4. Each student would recognize the interdependence of literature and culture as measured in small group discussions and short writing assignments. Students would be urged to place themselves "in the shoes" of characters in the story.

Behavioral objective no. 5. Each student would increase his/her ability to analyze a story by means of

short writing assignments, which, for example, might probe a character's motive or personality.

Behavioral objective no. 6. Each student would increase his/her ability to comprehend story elements by means of testing.

Behavioral objective no. 7. Each student would increase his/her understanding and appreciation of literature as measured by a student survey.

The following survey is designed to be given at the beginning of the year:

1. Do you like your present reading book?
2. Would you like to read other books besides this book?
3. Do you feel you have opportunities in class to discuss books?
4. Do you know what is meant by the term "literature?"
5. Do you read in your spare time?
6. Do you think of yourself as a very good reader?
7. Do your parents read books?
8. Do you think reading is fun?
9. Do you like to have discussions in class about books?
10. Do you read newspapers or magazines?
11. Do you go to a library other than the one at school?
12. Do you like for your teacher to have the class do creative things?

The next survey is to be given at the close of a literature-enriched reading program:

1. Would you like to continue with the literature program next year?
2. Do you feel you have learned anything important?
3. Did you like the group activities?
4. Do you feel you made a contribution?
5. Do you think very many in class gained something from the activities?
6. Are you now more familiar with a dictionary, encyclopedia, atlas and thesaurus?
7. Did you like being creative?
8. Did you enjoy any other books besides ours?
9. Do you like reading any more after studying about children's literature?
10. Did you have enough time in class to discuss the books?
11. Did you like our informal reading discussions?
12. Would you recommend this literature program to other students?

McClure (1982) wrote that a good reading program cannot separate reading from all the other language arts. I very enthusiastically agree. When given the opportunity, I will choose a program through which students have chances to use listening, speaking, reading and writing skills.

Frick (1986) believes story sharing to be a motivational vehicle for reading. I have found this to be true in my classroom. Students look forward to story sharing time, although in many instances, they had not read the books. The fascination of these stories was developed because of the presenter's enthusiasm and the inclusion of personal incidences.

Fredericks (1982) indicates that exposing students to reading activities beyond the basal text is crucial in developing positive attitudes towards reading. Brozo and Tomlinson (1986) affirm that the teacher should exploit children's past successes with stories by continuing to use books along with standard texts.

This past school year, my principal allowed the purchase of one set of books. I chose A Wrinkle in Time by Madeline L'Engle. I have now gotten my feet wet in the area of using literature in my reading program. Each year I hope to purchase more books, expand my classroom library and encourage my peers to consider doing the same.

Following are my personal goals for achieving success in this endeavor:

1. Provide various teaching strategies.
2. Offer creative activities.
3. Make available books on different reading levels with a variety of interests.

4. Build a classroom library including such real world materials as newspapers, magazines, and library books.
5. Provide opportunity for free reading time.
6. Be a role model of positive attitudes toward reading.

Today over 40,000 trade books are in print, not to mention the increasing number of paperbacks for children. These books include picture books, folktales, modern fantasy, realistic stories, mysteries, science fiction, historical fiction, biography and non-fiction on most any topic. As Charlotte Huck writes (1987):

> This is not an easy way to teach reading. It requires a thorough knowledge of children's literature, an internalization of the reading process, and a thorough understanding of children. But for teachers who are enthusiastic about books and who know the value of fine literature, it is the only way to teach reading. They know the pleasures and the knowledge that books can give and they will not be satisfied until each of their students becomes a real reader. (p. 331)

Not surprisingly, the related literature indicated a variety of methods, findings, and conclusions which confirm that the improvement of reading ability in schools is a major concern of educators.

The review of the related literature supports that children's literature is often neglected and that it should be a part of the language arts curriculum. Indeed, children's literature is a topic that is interdisciplinary in nature; hence, it is a credible educational goal.

In the final analysis, the reading act is simply a process that results in a product, that product being communication. According to Burns, Roe, and Ross (1984), the reading process must involve eight aspects to be entirely successful. These are: (1) sensory--a perception of the symbols, (2) perceptual--or interpretation, (3) sequential--the ability to follow patterns, (4) experiential--the relating to direct experiences, (5) associational--the recognition of words and what they represent, (6) learning--incorporating the new with what has been learned in the past, (7) thinking--ability to infer and evaluate, and (8) affective--which deals with attitudes and interests.

Not only is the reading process complex, but each aspect is complex as well. The entire process could be likened to a recipe, with each aspect (or ingredient) contributing to the whole product. See example on following page. Note the inclusion of possible activities with each aspect, or ingredient.

Recipe for Reading

Combine the following in a creative atmosphere:

1 part sensory

visualize what the book is about just from the title; use variations of "round-robin" to read aloud; buddy reading; give predictions about the book based solely on the illustrations

---

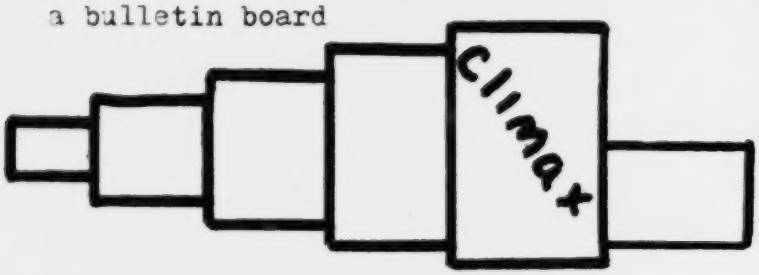
1 part perceptual

list making (unusual- sounding words, descriptive phrases, examples of humor, words with prefixes); interviews between characters in the book

---

1 part sequential

show graphically the different parts of the story structure on a bulletin board



Students add paper rectangles as the story progresses. This can be an aid to writing their own stories.

Add:

1 part experiential	charades; choose one scene and make a movie script; design a poster to advertise the movie version of the book; brainstorm alternate solutions to the characters' problems
1 part associational	race to see who finds the most similies and metaphors; draw speech bubbles for each character (write what each would tell you about himself); do word associations for vocabulary words

Mix freely with the following:

1 part learning	choose an event in the story and say it with poetry; practice summarization (entire book, a chapter, an event, a character's life)

1 part thinking	Discuss how the story might have ended if a particular person or problem was omitted; tell how unbelievable events could <u>really</u> happen; highly exaggerate a character with alliteration; make a time line of the book, using factual events; write review

---

Sprinkle with a generous amount of:

affective	organize a book swap; let students tape stories for each other; set up a read-aloud time for your students to read a story to KG/1st grade class; sponsor a Pizza Hut Book-It Program (call 1-800-4-BOOK-IT)

References

Barr, R. A. (1986). I saw the movie, but I couldn't read the book. Journal of Reading, 29, 511-515.

Barr, R. & Sadow, M. (1989). Influence of basal programs on 4th grade reading instruction. Reading Research Quarterly, 24, 44-71.

Bartelo, D. M. & Cornette, J. M. (1982). A literature program for the gifted: Gifted writers + gifted readers = positive reading attitudes. Paper presented at the International Reading Association World Congress on Reading, Dublin, Ireland.

Brosnahan, E. (1988). Reading--a novel approach. Learning 88, 17, 46-48.

Brozo, W. G. & Tomlinson, C.M. (1986). Literature: The key to lively content courses. The Reading Teacher, 35, 784-789.

Burns, P. C., Roe, B. D. & Ross, E. P. (1984). Teaching reading in today's elementary schools. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

Cairney, T. H. (1988). The purpose of basals: What children think. The Reading Teacher, 41, 420-428.

Cohen, D. (1968). The effect of literature on vocabulary and reading achievement. Elementary English, 45, 209-217.

Eddy, B. L. (1988). Classics club. The Reading Teacher, 42, 94.

Farr, R. (1988). A place for basal readers under the whole language unbrella. Educational Leadership, 46, 86.

Fredericks, A. D. (1982). Developing positive reading attitudes. The Reading Teacher, 36, 38-40.

Fredericks, A. D. (1986). Mental imagery activities to improve comprehension. The Reading Teacher, 40, 78-81.

Frick, H. A. (1986). The value of sharing stories orally with middle grade students. Journal of Reading, 29, 300-303.

Gambrell, L. B. & Sokolski, C. (1983). Picture potency: Use Caldecott award books to develop children's language. The Reading Teacher, 36, 868-871.

Goodman, K. S., Olsen, H. C., Colvin, C. M. & VanderLinde, L. F. (1966). Choosing materials to teach reading. Detroit: Wayne State University Press.

Hayes, D. A. & Henk, W. A. (1986). Understanding and remembering complex prose augmented by analogic and pictorial illustration. Journal of Reading Behavior, 18, 63-76.

Huck, C. S. (1976). Children's literature in the elementary school. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Huck, C. S. (1987). Literature as the content of reading. Theory into Practice, 26, 374-382.

Johnston, P. (1985). Teaching students to apply strategies that improve reading comprehension. The Elementary School Journal, 85, 635-645.

Lewis, R. & Teale, W. H. (1980). Another look at secondary school students' attitudes toward reading. Journal of Reading Behavior, 12, 187-201.

Manna, A. L. (1984). Making language come alive through reading plays. The Reading Teacher, 37, 712-717.

Martin, C. E. & Cramond, B. (1984). A checklist for assessing and developing creative reading. Gifted Child Today, 32, 22-24.

McClure, A. A. (1982). Integrating children's fiction and informational literature in a primary reading curriculum. The Reading Teacher, 35, 784-789.

McCracken, R. A. & McCracken, M. (1972). Reading is only the tiger's tail. San Rafael, CA: Leswing Press.

McNeil, J. (1984). Reading comprehension: New directions for classroom practice. Glenview, IL: Scott Foresman.

Palinscar, A. S., Ranson, K., & Derber, S. (1989). Collaborative research and development of reciprocal teaching. Educational Leadership, 46, 37-40.

Peters, F. J. J. (1980). The 1980 Olympics: A school-wide tv-reading project. Journal of Reading, 23, 300-304.

Pounds, R. L. & Bryner, J. R. (1967). The school in American society. New York: Macmillan Co.

Pounds, R. L. & Garretson, R. L. (1962). Principles of modern education. New York: Macmillan Co.

Sebesta, S. L. (Ed.). (1968). Ivory, apes, and peacocks. New York: Ray Freiman.

Stahl, S. S. (1965). The teaching of reading in the intermediate grades. Dubuque, IA: Wm. C. Brown Co.

Steinberg, H. (1983). Reading and tv viewing--complementary activities. Journal of Reading, 26, 510-514.

Thayer, V. T., Zachry, C. B., & Kotinsky, R. (1939). Reorganizing secondary education. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co.

Turner, R. R. (1988). How the basals stack up. Learning 88, 17, 62-64.

Whisler, N. G. (1978). Pupil partners. Language Arts, 53, 387-389.

Whitehead, R. (1968). Children's literature: Strategies of teaching. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Whitmer, J. E. (1986). Pickles will kill you: Use humorous literature to teach critical reading. The Reading Teacher, 39, 530-534.

Winograd, P. & Paris, S. G. (1988). A cognitive and motivational agenda for reading instruction. Educational Leadership, 46, 31-35.

United States Bureau of Education, (1918). Bulletin 35, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C.